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- 1 An experimental test of state-behaviour feedbacks: gizzard mass and foraging behaviour in red
- 2 knots
- 3
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12 Running title: Experimental test of state-behaviour feedbacks

13 Summary

14	1.	Animals frequently exhibit consistent among-individual differences in behavioural and
15		physiological traits that are inherently flexible. Why should individuals differ consistently in their
16		expression of labile traits? Recently, positive feedbacks between state and behaviour have been
17		proposed as a possible explanation for the maintenance of consistent among-individual
18		differences in both state and behaviour. If state affects behaviour, and behaviour reciprocally
19		affects state, then differences in either state or behaviour that arise among-individuals even by
20		chance could be maintained over extended periods of time.
21	2.	We tested for positive feedbacks experimentally using wild-caught red knots (Calidris canutus
22		islandica). In the wild, knots exhibit consistent among-individual differences in digestive
23		physiology (the mass of the muscular part of the stomach, the gizzard) and foraging behaviour
24		(diet), two inherently labile traits.
25	3.	Experimentally manipulated diet quality had a large effect on gizzard mass. Experimentally
26		manipulated gizzard mass reciprocally influenced total food eaten during ad libitum trials.
27	4.	The effect of gizzard mass on diet choice, though in the predicted direction, was not statistically
28		significant. Individuals exhibited consistent differences in foraging behaviour of unknown origin
29		independent of current gizzard mass, as well as large residual unexplained variance in foraging
30		behaviour. These two sources of variation in foraging behaviour overruled the gizzard mass-
31		dependent foraging behaviour and hence eroded the treatment-related differences in gizzard
32		mass.
33	5.	We conclude that positive feedbacks between diet choice and gizzard mass play at best a limited
34		role in maintaining among-individual variation in gizzard mass in red knots. Furthermore, we
35		suggest that many models of state-behaviour feedbacks likely overestimate their potential
36		importance in maintaining long-term among-individual variation in labile traits because most
37		models of state-behaviour feedbacks fail to account for the effects of additional factors that may
38		act to disrupt the feedback loops.

39	6.	The among-individual differences in diet choice observed during solitary foraging trials eroded the
40		consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass observed following periods of staple diet
41		treatments in which knots foraged in social groups. Social foraging interactions may play an
42		important role determining the expression of foraging behaviours such as intake rate that in turn
43		influence gizzard mass. Further studies are needed to experimentally test the role of social
44		interactions as a mechanism generating consistent among-individual differences in foraging
45		behaviours and gizzard mass.

- **Keywords:** animal personality, diet choice, digestive constraints, gizzard mass, physiological
- 48 plasticity, state-dependent behaviour

49 Introduction

50 Behavioural and physiological traits are often inherently flexible and responsive to changes in the 51 environment (Piersma & van Gils 2011). However, within a population, individuals frequently differ 52 consistently in their expression of these traits, referred to as 'individual specialization', 'consistent 53 among-individuals differences', or 'niche differentiation' (Bolnick et al. 2003; Araújo, Bolnick & 54 Layman 2011; Dall et al. 2012; Sih et al. 2015). Why should individuals differ consistently in their 55 expression of labile traits? Recently, positive feedbacks between state and behaviour have been 56 proposed as a possible explanation for the maintenance of consistent among-individual differences 57 in both behaviour and state (Sih & Bell 2008; Wolf, van Doorn & Weissing 2008; Luttbeg & Sih 2010; 58 Sih et al. 2015). If state affects behaviour, and if behaviour simultaneously affects state, then, when 59 among-individual differences in either state or behaviour arise, even if by chance (e.g. stochastic 60 processes), among-individual differences in both state and behaviour could be maintained over 61 extended periods of time.

62 Several theoretical models have demonstrated the potential importance of positive 63 feedbacks under a range of scenarios (reviewed in Sih et al. 2015). For example, if foragers become 64 less vulnerable to predators as they grow larger due to state-dependent safety, then larger 65 individuals may be expected to be relatively more willing to forage under elevated predation danger. 66 At the same time, by virtue of their increased willingness to forage under higher levels of predation 67 danger, larger individuals may acquire the additional resources necessary to maintain or even grow 68 in body size (Luttbeg & Sih 2010). When such positive feedbacks are present (i.e. the effect of 69 behaviour on state and the effect of state on behaviour act to reinforce one another), small 70 stochastic among-individual differences in either state or behaviour can be maintained over 71 extended periods of time. Despite growing interest in the role of state-behaviour feedbacks in 72 maintaining among-individual variation in labile traits, experimental tests of state-behaviour 73 feedbacks are lacking (Sih et al. 2015).

74 Here we report on an experiment conducted with wild-caught red knots (Calidris canutus 75 islandica) testing for feedbacks between diet choice and gizzard mass. Red knots are long-distance 76 migrating shorebirds that breed in the High Arctic and forage on hard-shelled molluscs in coastal 77 estuaries during the rest of the year (Piersma 2007; Buehler & Piersma 2008). Red knots ingest their 78 invertebrate diet whole and crush hard-shelled prey in their muscular gizzards. Gizzard mass is 79 remarkably flexible; knots can adjust their gizzard mass to seasonal changes in energy demands 80 (Piersma 2002; Piersma & van Gils 2011), and as a function of the availability of prey of different 81 digestive qualities (Dekinga et al. 2001). Gizzard mass for knots wintering in the Dutch Wadden Sea 82 range from circa 2 to 12 g (van Gils et al. 2005). Intriguingly, gizzard mass predicts patterns of habitat 83 use over the course of weeks (Oudman et al. 2016) up to many months (Bijleveld et al. 2014), which 84 suggests that among-individual differences in gizzard mass are stable over extended periods of time. 85 Given that gizzard mass is a labile trait with the potential to change in size several-fold over the 86 course of days (Dekinga et al. 2001), why do free-living knots exhibit consistent among-individual 87 variation in gizzard mass?

88 One obvious explanation for consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass 89 variation is variation in overall body size: larger-bodied birds may have larger gizzards. Indeed, 90 analyses of over 1000 gizzard mass measurements taken on red knots captured in the Dutch Wadden 91 Sea during the overwintering period (October through February) show significant correlations with 92 measures of structural body size such as wing chord, bill length, tarsus (Dekinga & Piersma, 93 unpublished data, see Appendix S1 in Supporting Information). However, structural body size 94 explains a relatively small proportion of the total variation in gizzard mass (< 2%), which suggests that 95 some other factor(s) are the main drivers of variation in gizzard mass.

Positive feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet choice offer another potential explanation
for consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass (Piersma, Koolhaas & Dekinga 1993;
Piersma *et al.* 1999). Earlier work has already demonstrated that the digestive quality of the diet
strongly affects gizzard mass (Dekinga *et al.* 2001; Bijleveld *et al.* 2014). When the diet of knots is

100 experimentally manipulated, knots fed a lower quality diet with a low ratio of digestible to 101 indigestible components develop larger gizzards (e.g. Dekinga et al. 2001; Bijleveld et al. 2014). Food 102 processing rates are faster with increasing gizzard mass (van Gils et al. 2003), consequently, as 103 gizzard mass increases, digestive constraints decrease, where digestive constraint refers to the 104 extent to which intake rate is limited by digestive processing rate. Digestive rate maximizing models 105 predict that diet breadth should increase as digestive constraints decrease (Hirakawa 1995; 1997); 106 because as gizzard mass increases, knots should be relatively more willing to consume low quality 107 prey in addition to high quality prey. A greater willingness to consume low quality prey items by 108 some individuals would reinforce variation in gizzard mass by facilitating the maintenance of larger 109 gizzards in these individuals. Conversely, if individuals with small gizzards are less willing to accept 110 low quality prey, their diet selection would prevent them from developing larger gizzards. Thus, 111 variation in gizzard mass and diet choice arising from chance variation in encounters with high versus 112 low quality prey could theoretically be maintained over extended periods of time via positive 113 feedbacks between digestive physiology and foraging behaviour (Bijleveld et al. 2014). 114 We tested for positive feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet choice in a laboratory 115 experiment using wild-caught red knots and evaluated whether such feedbacks are sufficient to 116 account for observed differences in gizzard mass and diet choice in free-living knots. First, we 117 manipulated diet quality and recorded the consequences of diet manipulations on gizzard mass. 118 Second, we tested whether experimentally manipulated gizzard mass influenced diet choice. 119 Specifically, we tested the prediction that knots would show a greater willingness to accept low 120 quality prey items in their diet if their gizzards were experimentally enlarged from long-term 121 exposure to a low digestive quality diet.

122

123 Methods

124 Study subjects

125 Twenty red knots were captured using mist nests on the mudflats of Richel (53°16'57"N, 05°23'82"E) 126 in the Wadden Sea, The Netherlands on 27 January 2015. Prior to laboratory experiments, birds were 127 housed in aviaries at the NIOZ Royal Netherlands Institute for Sea Research, in 2 flocks of 10 birds. 128 Aviary dimensions were 3.85 x 1.85 m and 2.40 m high. Temperature and photoperiod matched 129 prevailing ambient conditions. Aviary floors were kept wet with a constant stream of filtered sea 130 water and a tray of running freshwater was always available for drinking and bathing. Birds were 131 maintained on a diet of protein-rich trout-feed pellets (Produits Trouw, Vervins, France) that was 132 available ad libitum. Birds were handled each week to assess overall health and to allow aviaries to 133 be cleaned. Prior to experiments, two birds died of unknown causes. Three additional birds were 134 excluded from the experiments; two because they developed small breast wounds which precluded 135 measurements of gizzards during the experiments (see below for description of gizzard 136 measurements) and one because it had low body mass in the two weeks preceding the experiment 137 and therefore we chose not to include it in a protocol that involved regular periods of food 138 deprivation (see below). Each of these three birds improved in condition over the subsequent weeks 139 and was later released. Thus, our experiments were carried out with N = 15 birds, all of which were in 140 good health and released at the end of the experiment.

141 Gizzard mass manipulations

142 We used a within-subjects study design in which we manipulated gizzard mass twice in each bird,

143 hereafter "large gizzard" and "small gizzard" treatments. The order of treatment was randomized:

- 144 half of birds received the large gizzard treatment first (N = 8) and half received the small gizzard
- 145 treatment first (N=7). Gizzard mass was manipulated by changing the digestive quality of their staple
- 146 diet. To induce small gizzards, knots were fed a high digestive quality diet of blue mussels, Mytilus
- 147 edulis, whose shells were opened by briefly submerging the mussels in boiling water (see Bijleveld et

al. 2014). When presented with mussels with open shells, knots consume only the flesh of the
mussel, thereby removing the need to process shells in their gizzard. Previous experiments with
knots have shown that a diet of open mussels induces an average gizzard mass of approximately 2 to
3 g (Bijleveld *et al.* 2014).

152 To induce large gizzards, knots were fed a low digestive quality diet of thawed mudsnails, 153 Hydrobia ulvae, a marine gastropod snail. Freezing Hydrobia does not separate the mollusc flesh 154 from the shell, and therefore, knots consumed Hydrobia whole and needed to process large volumes 155 of Hydrobia shells in their gizzards. To minimize variance in digestive quality over the course of the 156 experiments, all Hydrobia used in these experiments were collected on a single sampling occasion 157 (12 March 2015) in the Wadden Sea near the Afsluitdijk (52°58'07"N, 5°06'19"E). Previous 158 experiments with knots have shown that a staple diet of Hydrobia during the same time of year 159 (spring) induces a gizzard mass of roughly 6 to 7 g (Vézina, Dekinga & Piersma 2011). Therefore, we 160 expected our two gizzard mass manipulations to result in approximately 2-fold variation in gizzard 161 mass.

162 We chose to use *Hydrobia* rather than closed mussels to induce large gizzards. Using closed 163 mussels for the "large gizzard" treatment would have had the advantage of being the same food type 164 as used in the "small gizzard" treatment, thereby controlling for treatment related differences in the 165 nutritional quality of food offered during the experiments. However, closed mussels can only be 166 stored for up to 1 week, and therefore, would have had to have been collected on numerous 167 occasions over the course of the experiments. Given that the digestive quality of mussels changes 168 seasonally as mussels grow (Dare & Edwards 1975), closed mussels would not have provided a 169 standard gizzard mass manipulation over the 8 week duration of our laboratory experiments. In 170 contrast, the Hydrobia used during the experiments were collected in a single day, and were 171 therefore of uniform digestive quality throughout the experiments. Furthermore, in earlier 172 experiments, knots fed staple diets of either Hydrobia (e.g., Vézina et al. 2006) or mussels (e.g.,

173 Bijleveld, Folmer & Piersma 2012) over the course of several months were healthy and had good

body condition, indicating that each of these two food types meet the nutritional needs of knots.

175 In captivity, knots adjust gizzard mass to changes in diet within approximately 1 week 176 (Dekinga *et al.* 2001). We allowed birds 3 weeks to adjust their gizzard mass to staple diets before 177 carrying out diet choice experiments which lasted 1 week. Each bird was subjected to both diet 178 treatments, in random order. Thus, the entire experiment lasted approximately 2 months.

179 Gizzard measurements

180 Gizzard mass was measured by AD using an ultrasound scanner (model Aquilla, Pie Medical Benelux, 181 Maastricht, The Netherlands). Birds were not anesthetized for the procedure, which takes 182 approximately 3 to 5 minutes per individual, and knots remained calm during handling. Prior to the 183 procedure, animals are fasted for at least 1 hour (range 1 hr to 3 hours) to ensure that their gizzards 184 were empty and therefore, that variation in gizzard measurements reflects differences in the organ 185 size as opposed to differences the amount of organ contents. During the procedure, an individual is 186 placed on its back on the lap of the observer (AD) and ultrasonic gel is smeared on its belly to couple 187 the probe to the surface of the animal. The width and height of the gizzard are measured by placing 188 the probe transversely on the belly of the bird at a 45° angle just below the rib cage. For more 189 detailed descriptions of the procedure, see Dietz et al. (1999) and Dekinga et al. (2001). In each 190 measurement session, gizzard height (cm) and gizzard width (cm) were measured twice for each bird. 191 Subsequently, the average height and average width were used to estimate gizzard mass in grams 192 using the following equation:

gizzard mass (g) =
$$-1.09 + 3.78 \times (height_{average} \times width_{average})$$

The equation and coefficients were estimated from a regression of similarly obtained gizzard measurements against fresh gizzard mass (in grams, excluding any contents) from dead birds that could be dissected (r = 0.92, p < 0.01, N = 27) (Bijleveld *et al.* 2014). Gizzard mass was measured within 24-hr of capture. This measure reflects gizzard mass of free-living knots (hereafter, field

198 gizzard). Additionally, gizzard mass was measured on 4 occasions for each bird over the course of the

199 experiments: before the start of each series of diet choice experiments (n = 2), and at the end of each

series of diet choice experiments (n = 2). The gizzard observer (AD) was blind to the gizzard mass

201 manipulation of the birds as well as to their foraging behaviour during diet choice trials.

202 Diet choice experiments

203 Baltic tellins, Macoma balthica, a small marine bivalve of different size classes (see details below and 204 in Appendix S2 and Table S1) were used during foraging trials to test the prediction that knots alter 205 prey choice as a function of their digestive constraints. We used Macoma ranging in size from 11 to 206 16 mm during foraging trials, which is within the range of sizes of Macoma in the natural diets of 207 knots (Zwarts & Blomert 1992; Dekinga & Piersma 1993). On days where foraging trials were carried 208 out, food was removed from holding aviaries at 6:00. Foraging trials were carried out between 12:00 209 and 18:00. Thus, birds experienced a minimum deprivation of 6:00 prior to trials, which is equivalent 210 to non-feeding times experienced by free-living knots when their foraging grounds are inundated 211 during high tides. Outside of experimental periods (18:00 to 6:00), birds had ad libitum access to 212 their staple diets (either Hydrobia or open mussels). For each bird and each gizzard mass 213 manipulation, we attempted 3 replicates of the foraging trials (see details below). Between 4 and 11 214 birds were tested each day, and it took 7 days of tests to complete 3 replicates of the foraging trials 215 for all 15 birds during each of the two experimental blocks.

216 *Phase I:* Ad libitum *trials*

Knots were tested individually in diet choice experiments, which were carried out in two steps. Tests began by catching a randomly pre-determined focal individual from their group aviary, weighing the individual, then placing the individual in a testing aviary with identical dimensions to the group holding aviaries. Next, 50 intermediately sized *Macoma* (13 - 14 mm) were evenly spaced on a tray that was placed in the aviary, and the focal bird was allowed to feed for 40 min. The trays were 60 x 40 x 5 cm (width x length x depth), and were the same type of trays in which birds had *ad libitum*

223 access to food outside of the experiments and were therefore familiar to birds. At the end of the 224 trial, the tray was removed and the number of Macoma eaten was recorded. The first phase of the 225 experiment served two purposes: (1) it allowed us to ensure that birds were motivated to feed 226 before testing their diet preferences, and (2) it aimed to ensure that birds entering the diet choice 227 phase of the experiment (phase 2) were digestively constrained (i.e. did not have empty gizzards). 228 Birds that did not eat any Macoma during the ad libitum trials were neither motivated nor 229 constrained (their gizzards were empty), and they were returned to their group aviary and the next 230 focal individual was taken. In total, there were 3 individuals that never ate during the trials, and thus 231 we obtained diet choice data for a total of 12 individuals. We chose not to increase the duration of 232 the food deprivation as a means to increase feeding motivation as we wanted to avoid influencing 233 gizzard physiology with unnaturally long periods of food deprivation. However, the probability of 234 feeding during the ad libitum trials was not related to the gizzard treatment (see Results).

235 Phase II: Diet choice

236 Any birds that ate \geq 1 *Macoma* were carried forward into the second phase of the experiment on diet 237 choice. The diet choice experiment consisted of 20 sequential presentations of two prey types: high 238 digestive quality Macoma (10.5 – 12.5 mm size class) and low digestive quality Macoma (14.5 – 16.5 239 mm size class). Size classes of Macoma were selected on the basis of ratio of flesh to shell mass 240 (digestive quality) determined in a subsample of *Macoma* prior to the start of the experiments (see 241 Appendix S2 for details regarding estimates of digestive quality). Prey were presented in alternating 242 order, always beginning with the high quality prey item, similar to the protocol outlined in Krebs et 243 al. (1977). We created an experimental scenario where searching time for each prey type was fixed 244 at 2 min by presenting the next prey item 1 minute after a bird entered the food tray. Birds only 245 entered the food tray for feeding and for this reason birds that entered the tray were deemed to be 246 searching for food. The tray was removed after 1 min independent of whether or not the prey item it 247 contained was consumed. The tray was immediately replaced with a new tray containing the next 248 prey item to be presented. By presenting the subsequent prey item 1 min after the bird entered the

249 tray, handling time was effectively zero, as it had no effect on the interval at which prey were 250 encountered. Based on the realized effect of the gizzard mass manipulations and the estimated 251 energy and ballast content of *Macoma*, we predicted that knots with large gizzards should accept 252 both prey types, while knots with small gizzards should only accept high quality Macoma (see 253 Appendix S3 for calculations). Tests ended before completing 20 presentations if the time elapsed 254 since the start of the test was greater than 90 min or if the focal bird took greater than 20 minutes to 255 approach the food tray after it was presented, as the bird was assumed to no longer be motivated to 256 feed at this point.

257 Statistical analyses

First, we confirmed that gizzard mass manipulations were effective. Gizzard mass following each series of 3 week staple diet manipulations was modelled as a function of the treatment (small gizzard or large gizzard), and individual identity was fitted as a random effect. Gizzard mass was modelled with Gaussian errors. We also tested for a possible effect of treatment order (both alone and in interaction with current treatment). There was no support for such effects (results not shown), and therefore, treatment order was not considered further.

Next, we tested whether the gizzard mass manipulation predicted the probability of participating in foraging trials. We modelled the decision to participate in a given replicate attempt (Yes = 1 (n= 50); No = 0 (n= 40)) as a function of the gizzard treatment. Individual identity was fitted as a random effect. The decision to participate was modelled with binomial errors.

For birds that did participate in the trials, we tested whether the gizzard mass manipulation resulted in differences in intake rate of *Macoma* during *ad libitum* trials, which we assume reflects variation in digestive capacity. We modelled the number of *Macoma* eaten during *ad libitum* trials as a function of gizzard mass treatment. We also included individual-treatment specific replicate as a fixed effect to account for the possibility that gizzard mass, and hence prey ingestion, changed across successive trials. Individual-treatment specific replicates were left-zeroed (i.e. the first replicate in

which a bird consumed *Macoma* was coded as zero, the second was coded as 1, and the third was coded as 2) so that the model estimates for each treatment level (large gizzard or small gizzard) provided an estimate of the behaviour of birds during the first trial in which they participated. Individual identity was fitted as a random effect. The number of *Macoma* eaten for birds that did participate in the trials (i.e. that ingested \geq 1 *Macoma*) was normally distributed, and models were constructed with a Gaussian error distribution.

280 We also tested whether our experimental manipulations of gizzard mass resulted in 281 differences in prey acceptance. We modelled the decision to accept (1) or reject (0) either high or 282 low quality *Macoma* as a function of gizzard mass treatment (small gizzard or large gizzard). Again, 283 we modelled changes in acceptance across successive replicates to account for possible changes in 284 prey choice over time. Individual identity was fitted as a random effect, and models were 285 constructed with a binomial error distribution.

286 We also investigated whether any observed differences in acceptance probabilities reflected 287 differences in the digestive quality of realized diets due differences in the relative acceptance of high 288 versus low quality *Macoma*, rather than differences in feeding rate or feeding motivation caused by 289 differences in the probability of accepting Macoma overall, but no differences in the relative 290 acceptance of high versus low quality prey. We repeated the above analyses using the number of low 291 digestive quality Macoma versus high digestive quality Macoma accepted by foraging birds as 292 response variables (using the 'cbind' function). Gizzard treatment and trial replicate were included as 293 fixed effects, and individual identity was fitted as a random effect. The model was constructed with a 294 binomial error structure.

The above analyses revealed changes in prey acceptance across successive replicates. We therefore tested whether behavior during the foraging trials resulted in changes in gizzard mass. Here, we modelled changes in gizzard mass (end gizzard mass – start gizzard mass) as a function of the number of *Macoma* consumed during the foraging trials, experimental treatment (large or small

gizzard), and the interaction. Individual ID was included as a random effect, and the model wasconstructed with Gaussian errors.

301 Analyses of a much larger data set of gizzard mass show that body size explains only a small 302 proportion of the total variance in gizzard mass (<2%, see Appendix S1). Furthermore, our 303 experiments employ a within-subject design with a randomized treatment order, thus providing 304 controls for among-individual differences in body size. Therefore, we did not include structural body 305 size as a covariate in our models. All mixed effects models were constructed in R v.3.1.2 (R Core 306 Team 2014) using the 'lme4' package. We used the 'sim' function of the 'arm' package to simulate 307 values of the posterior distribution of the model parameters. Ninety-five percent credible intervals 308 (CI) around the mean (β) were extracted based on 1000 simulations (Gelman & Hill 2007). We 309 evaluated support for effects based on estimated effects sizes and their 95% credible intervals 310 (Cumming & Finch 2005; Nakagawa & Cuthill 2007). This approach has been advocated to avoid 311 drawing dichotomous conclusions to accept or reject the null hypothesis based on data which can 312 show a continuous range of support (or lack of support) for a given interpretation (Cohen 1990). 313 However, as a reference for readers less familiar with CIs, a 95% CI is roughly equivalent to a $p \le 0.05$ 314 when the null hypothesis is anything outside the bounds of the CI (i.e., no directional prediction), or p 315 \leq 0.025 with directional predictions (Cumming & Finch 2005); we describe such results as showing 316 'strong-support' for an effect. For estimates that are biased away from zero but with the 95% CIs 317 overlapping zero (up to 15% of CI), we instead use the term 'moderate support'. For estimates 318 centered on zero, we use the term 'no support for an effect' or the term 'support for lack of effect'. 319 Adjusted repeatabilities (i.e. repeatability after correcting for fixed effects) were calculated following 320 Nakagawa and Schielzeth (2010) as Vindividual/(Vindividual+Vresidual), where Vindividual is the individual 321 variance component and V_{residual} is the residual variance.

322

323 Results

Manipulations of the digestive quality of the diet had the intended effect on induced gizzard mass. The average gizzard mass following the small gizzard treatment was 3.60 g (95% CI = 3.03, 4.10) versus 6.17 g following the large gizzard treatment (95% CI = 5.62, 6.67). The difference between treatments was significant (β = 2.45 g, 95% CI = 2.10, 3.08). We also observed significant individual repeatability of gizzard mass (r = 0.34, 95% CI = 0.25, 0.71) indicating that, even while adjusting gizzard mass to current staple diets, individual knots with relatively large gizzards in one treatment also had relatively large gizzards in the other treatment (Figure 1).

Not all birds participated in each attempted replicate of the foraging trials. However, the probability (log odds ratio) of eating during *ad libitum* trials was not related to treatment (small gizzard: $\beta = 0.20$, 95% CI = -0.76, 1.29; large gizzard: $\beta = 0.39$, 95% CI = -0.82, 1.41; estimated difference: $\beta = 0.04$, 95% CI = -1.05, 0.95). However, the finding that individuals showed high repeatability in their probability of participating in trials independent of current gizzard mass (r = 0.74, 95% CI = 0.57, 0.81) suggests the presence of intrinsic among-individual variation in feeding motivation and/or willingness to eat *Macoma* under the conditions of these experiments.

338 For birds that did participate in the *ad libitum* trials, the number of intermediate sized 339 Macoma eaten was greater during the large gizzard treatment compared with the small gizzard 340 treatment (Table 1). The difference was significant (estimated difference β = 5.79, 95% CI = 0.67, 341 11.93). However, this was only true for the first replicate during which they participated, because 342 during the small gizzard treatment, but not during the large gizzard treatment, birds increased the 343 number of Macoma eaten over successive ad libitum trials (Table 1, Figure 2). The estimated 344 repeatability of ad libitum intake was low (r = 0.05, 95% CI = 0.02, 0.09), indicating a lack of among-345 individual differences in the quantity of *Macoma* eaten after controlling for current gizzard mass 346 treatment.

347 During the diet choice trials, knots were more likely to accept high quality *Macoma* 348 compared with low quality Macoma (Table 1, Figure 3). This diet preference indicates that knots 349 were clearly able to discriminate between these two categories of *Macoma*. Following the digestive 350 rate maximizing model (Hirakawa 1995; 1997), we predicted that birds would have a 100% 351 acceptance probability for high quality Macoma during both gizzard treatments (see Appendix S3 and 352 Figure S1 for calculations of predicted acceptances). Consistent with this prediction, the probability 353 of accepting high quality Macoma did not vary as a function of gizzard mass, however, the overall 354 acceptance rate was lower than predicted (~85%, Figure 3).

355 Overall, knots were much less likely to accept low quality Macoma. During the small gizzard 356 treatment, knots were more likely to accept low quality Macoma than predicted by the DRM (~ 20% 357 observed versus 10% predicted, Figure 3). In contrast, during the large gizzard treatment, knots were 358 less likely to accept low quality Macoma than predicted by the DRM (~ 30% observed versus 100% 359 predicted, Figure 3). The estimated difference in the log-likelihood of accepting low quality Macoma 360 across gizzard treatments was in the predicted direction (β = 0.35, 95% CI = -0.31, 1.21); but, the 95% 361 Cl of the difference overlapped with zero (13.6% of estimates were < 0). As during *ad libitum* trials, 362 we observed changes in diet choice across successive trials during the small gizzard treatment, but 363 not during the large gizzard treatment (Table 1). Over the course of successive trials, birds from small 364 gizzard treatments increased their probability of accepting both high and low quality Macoma (Table 365 1), perhaps because gizzard mass increased over the course of the foraging trials (see below). 366 Nonetheless, knots showed significant among-individual differences in the propensity to accept both 367 high quality (r = 0.57, 95% CI = 0.36, 0.68) and low quality (r = 0.36, 95% CI = 0.22, 0.50) Macoma. 368 The differences in the likelihood of accepting high and low quality *Macoma* translated to 369 differences in realized diet (Table 1). The ratio of low to high quality Macoma in the diet tended to be 370 greater during the large gizzard treatment ($\beta = 0.39, 95\%$ CI = -0.38, 0.99). Again, there was no evidence for changes in the ratio of low to high quality prey across successive replicates in the large 371 372 gizzard treatment, but the ratio of low to high quality prey increased across successive replicates in 16

373 the small gizzard treatment (β = 0.46, 95% CI = 0.08, 0.74). Furthermore, knots showed significant 374 among-individual differences in realized diet quality (r = 0.10, 95% CI = 0.03, 0.16), reflecting 375 differences either in the strength of their preference for high quality prey, their ability to discriminate 376 between high and low quality prey, or some combination of the two factors.

377 Knots tended to increase gizzard mass over the course of the diet trials during the small 378 gizzard manipulation (β = 0.65, 95% CI = -0.37, 1.40), but no such trend was observed during the large 379 gizzard manipulation (β = 0.02, 95% CI = -0.90, 0.81). Analyses that controlled for the number of 380 Macoma eaten during the trials revealed that birds from the large gizzard treatment decreased in 381 gizzard mass when they did not consume any Macoma (Table 2). Birds from the small gizzard 382 treatment that consumed no Macoma also tended to decrease in gizzard mass, but this was not 383 significant (Table 2). At the same time, the number of Macoma eaten during the foraging trials had a 384 positive effect and gizzard mass increased (effect of number of Macoma ingestions, Table 2). The 385 effects of ingestions did not differ across gizzard mass treatments (β = -0.014, 95% CI = -0.035, 0.015) 386 (Figure 4). Changes in gizzard mass over the course of the foraging trials controlling for the number 387 of *Macoma* ingested also showed individual repeatability (r = 0.43, 95% CI = 0.25, 0.58), indicating 388 consistent among-individual differences in gizzard plasticity.

389

391

390 Discussion

choice in wild-caught red knots to evaluate the potential role of state-behaviour feedbacks in
 maintaining among-individual variation in gizzard mass. We found some support for positive

We experimentally tested and quantified the strength of feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet

- 394 feedbacks; diet quality had large and significant effects on gizzard mass, and gizzard mass reciprocally
- affected *ad libitum* intake rates. However, we found only moderate support for a small effect of
- 396 gizzard mass on diet choice. We also observed several-fold variation in diet choice that was
- independent of current gizzard mass treatment. The variation resulted in large changes in gizzard

- 398 mass, which overrode the effects generated via feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet choice.
- 399 Below, we discuss the implication of our findings for our understanding of consistent among-
- 400 individual differences in gizzard mass, and in labile traits in general.

401 Positive feedbacks between gizzard mass and foraging behaviour

402 We experimentally tested whether state-behaviour feedbacks could favour the maintenance of 403 consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass and diet choice in red knots. In agreement 404 with earlier work, we found that experimentally manipulated diet induced large differences in gizzard 405 mass (Dekinga et al. 2001; Bijleveld et al. 2014). Individuals doubled their gizzard mass during the low 406 digestive quality diet treatment compared with the high digestive quality treatment (Figure 1). We 407 also confirmed that experimentally manipulated gizzard mass influenced digestive constraints. Knots 408 consumed twice as many Macoma (12.5-14.5 mm size class) during ad libitum foraging trials when 409 they had enlarged gizzards compared to when knots had reduced gizzards. Our findings corroborate 410 earlier work (van Gils et al. 2003) showing that larger gizzards have greater digestive processing 411 capacity compared with small gizzards. Following this, we predicted that larger gizzard mass should 412 be associated with lower prey selectivity (Hirakawa 1995; 1997). Additionally, higher intake rates had 413 positive effects on gizzard mass, while low intake rates had negative effects (Figure 4). Thus, gizzard-414 mass related differences in ad libitum intake rates may also feedback to contribute to the 415 maintenance of variation in gizzard mass.

As predicted, both the probability of acceptance of low quality *Macoma* and the ratio of low to high quality prey in the diet tended to be greater during the large gizzard manipulation. However, the two effects were weaker than predicted based on digestive constraints estimated following van Gils *et al.* (2003) (see Appendix S3 for derivations of quantitative predictions), and were not statistically significant (p = 0.13). The overall higher acceptance of high quality *Macoma* indicates that knots were clearly able to discriminate high and low quality prey (Table 1). Additionally, low quality *Macoma* were consumed to some degree, indicating that other constraints such as external

handling time, the ability to swallow *Macoma*, or to mechanically crush shells in their gizzards, did
not prevent knots from eating them, and that the low quality *Macoma* used in these experiments
were within the acceptable size range for this prey type (Zwarts & Blomert 1992). So why did knots
not show stronger adjustment in prey selectivity?

427 The nonsignificant effect of gizzard mass on diet choice may be due in part to the gizzard 428 mass manipulation having had a smaller effect on digestive processing rates than expected. 429 Following van Gils et al. (2003), our gizzard mass manipulations were expected to generate five-fold 430 variation in digestive processing rates. However, the observed differences in ballast processing 431 during ad libitum foraging trials were much more modest (~2-fold variation, Table 2). The relatively 432 modest change in apparent digestive constraints observed in the present study generates markedly 433 different predictions for gizzard mass related differences in prey choice. The predicted acceptance 434 probabilities for high and low quality *Macoma* become 62% and 0% respectively in the small gizzard 435 treatment, and 100% and 10% respectively in the large gizzard treatment (see Appendix S4 for 436 calculations). Indeed, the observed acceptance rates during foraging trials show much better 437 quantitative agreement with these predictions (Figure 3).

438 Nonetheless, one notable difference remaining between the revised predictions and the 439 observed acceptance rates was that knots exhibited a higher than predicted acceptance of low 440 quality Macoma during both gizzard mass treatments (20% and 30% acceptance in small and large 441 gizzard treatment, versus 0% and 10% predicted acceptance, respectively), although the observed 442 difference between treatments matched the predicted difference (10%). Our finding is similar to 443 results in other optimal diet studies (reviewed in Pyke 1984). For example, in one of the first optimal 444 diet studies, Krebs et al. (1977) found that great tits (Parus major) consistently exploited the less 445 profitable prey type more than predicted under intake rate maximization. Deviations from 446 expectation were interpreted as sampling behaviour, presumably to allow foragers to update their 447 estimates of the profitability of different prey types.

448 Positive feedbacks do not explain consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass

449 We did find some support of positive feedbacks between gizzard mass and foraging behaviour. The 450 digestive quality of the diet had strong effects on gizzard mass, and gizzard mass reciprocally had 451 strong effects on ad libitum intake rates. The effect of gizzard mass on diet choice was less clear: the 452 estimated effect size was in the predicted direction, but the credible intervals overlapped zero. 453 However, even accepting the potential for gizzard mass to influence diet choice in knots, three key 454 observations from our study suggest a limited role for state-behaviour feedbacks in maintaining 455 consistent among-individual differences in gizzard mass. First, feedbacks were strongly asymmetric. 456 Large differences in diet induced large differences in gizzard mass, but large differences in gizzard 457 mass induced at best weak differences in diet choice with predicted and observed effects both ~10%. 458 Second, the majority of variation in foraging behaviour observed, including willingness to 459 participate in *ad libitum* foraging trials, probability of accepting high quality versus low quality 460 Macoma, and ratio of low quality to high quality Macoma in the diet, was independent of current 461 gizzard mass. Gizzard-independent behaviour had large effects on gizzard mass (Figure 4) and 462 overrode variation generated by feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet choice. Thus, foraging 463 decisions were shaped by more than current gizzard mass. This result is not surprising; it is likely the 464 norm that the expression of labile traits is shaped by multiple pathways simultaneously. However, 465 many models of state-behaviour feedbacks fail to take additional pathways into account (but see

466 Luttbeg & Sih 2010). Our results highlight that when multiple factors act on the expression of labile
467 traits simultaneously, models that do not explicitly take multiple factors into account may

468 overestimate the potential for positive state-behaviour feedbacks to maintain long-term consistency469 in state and behaviour.

470 Last, we observed significant repeatability of gizzard mass following the staple diet
471 treatments, and experimentally manipulated gizzard mass following both treatments was positively
472 correlated with field gizzard mass (see Figure S2, left panel). Our results demonstrate that neither

473 state-behaviour feedbacks, nor among-individual differences in diet choice, are needed to generate 474 among-individual differences in gizzard mass because the diet manipulations precluded both of these 475 effects as the staple diets were of uniform digestive gualities. Furthermore, the correlations between 476 field gizzard measurements and captive gizzard measurements broke down following the diet choice 477 trials (see Figure S2, right panel). In other words, the opportunity to exert choice over the digestive 478 quality of their diets eroded the among-individual differences in gizzard mass observed between field 479 gizzard measurements and following periods of staple diet. Thus, individual differences in diet 480 preferences, at least as measured in our experiments, are not a primary driver of among-individual 481 variation in gizzard mass in free-living red knots. In line with this view, among-individual differences 482 in foraging behaviour (total intake or diet choice) expressed during foraging trials did not correlate 483 consistently with field gizzard mass (see Figure S3).

484 Understanding consistent individual differences in gizzard mass

If neither individual differences in diet choice, nor state-behaviour feedbacks, can account for the
long-term maintenance of among-individual differences in gizzard mass, then what factors can?
Below we discuss two alternative, non-exclusive, mechanisms that may promote consistent amongindividual differences in gizzard mass: environmental conditions during early development and/or
social context.

490 Conditions experienced during early development can produce lasting effects on adult 491 phenotypes (Monaghan 2008), and we suggest that among-individual differences in gizzard mass 492 could arise because of differences in early dietary experience. Previous studies have shown that early 493 diet has persistent effects on various aspects of physiology including antioxidant defense (Blount et 494 al. 2003; Noguera et al. 2015; Noguera, Monaghan & Metcalfe 2015), metabolic rate (Criscuolo et al. 495 2008), and digestive physiology (birds: Biviano, Martínez del Rio & Phillips 1993; mammals: Distel et 496 al. 1996; fish: Geurden et al. 2007). For example, sheep fed a diet of low digestive quality early in life 497 show lasting differences in digestive efficiency; they are more efficient at extracting nitrogen than

498 sheep that experienced high quality diets early in life (Distel et al. 1996). As a result, when the 499 availability of high quality food is low, sheep reared on low digestive quality diets expand the diet to 500 include low quality food more so than sheep reared on high quality diets (Distel et al. 1996), 501 consistent with predictions from a digestive rate maximizing model. Knots are likely to experience 502 among-individual differences in average digestive qualities of their diets during early development, for example because they develop in places or at times that differ in prey availability (van Gils et al. 503 504 2016). This in turn may influence their digestive efficiency, similar to findings in sheep. If knots that 505 experience low digestive quality diets develop greater digestive efficiency, then all else being equal, 506 these knots may consistently ingest more food or more food of lower quality, promoting long-term 507 maintenance of larger gizzards relative to knots with lower digestive efficiency.

508 Another, non-exclusive, mechanism that has been suggested previously to generate among-509 individual differences in labile traits is social interactions (Bell, Hankison & Laskowski 2009; Killen et 510 al. 2016). Social interactions may shape the foraging opportunities available to knots (e.g., 511 subordinates have less predictable access to food), which in turn influence gizzard mass. In knots, 512 social dominance is positively correlated with intake rates, even when food patches are non-513 depleting (Bijleveld, Folmer & Piersma 2012). Given that intake rate has a strong, positive effect on 514 changes in gizzard mass (Figure 4), social foraging interactions may play an important role in 515 generating among-individual variation in gizzard mass. As birds foraged in social groups when they were given the staple diets, but not during the diet choice experiments, this may explain why gizzard 516 517 mass following each staple diet manipulation was positively correlated with field gizzard mass, but 518 gizzard mass following diet choice experiments was not or was less so (see Figure S2). A lack of 519 competition during the solitary foraging trials may have allowed individuals to express acceptance 520 rates of high versus low quality Macoma (Table 1) that they would normally not be able to express in 521 social foraging groups.

522 Conclusions

523 We present an experimental test of state-behaviour feedbacks. We found support for positive 524 feedbacks between gizzard mass and intake rates. The effect of gizzard mass on diet choice (selection 525 for high versus low quality prey) was in the predicted direction but not statistically significant. 526 However, the observed positive feedback effects were overridden by other factors that shaped 527 foraging behaviour independent of current gizzard mass. In addition, consistent among-individual 528 differences in gizzard mass were observed following staple diet treatments. As the staple diet 529 treatments precluded the opportunity to exhibit diet selectivity, our results indicate not only that 530 state-behaviour feedbacks at best play a limited role in generating consistent among-individual 531 differences in gizzard mass, but further, that among-individual differences in gizzard mass can arise in 532 the absence of feedbacks between gizzard mass and diet choice. We suggest that among-individual differences in early dietary experience may result in individual differences in developmental 533 534 trajectories of digestive physiology, and/or that social context may play a key role in mediating 535 foraging opportunities, which in turn determine gizzard mass. Further studies are needed to 536 experimentally assess the importance of these alternative mechanisms.

537

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560 Data accessibility

561 Data deposited in the Dryad repository: <u>http://dx.doi.org/10.5061/dryad.k28j0</u> (Mathot, Dekinga &
562 Piersma 2017).

563

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- 690 Supporting Information
- 691 Additional supporting information may be found in the online version of this article.
- 692 Appendix S1: The relationship between body size and gizzard mass
- 693 Appendix S2: Determining size categories of *Macoma* for use in experiments
- 694 **Appendix S3**: Determining optimal diet for digestively constrained foragers
- 695 Appendix S4: Comparing digestive constraints and optimal diet predictions across two studies
- 696 **Table S1**: Energy and ballast content for two size classes of *Macoma* used in the experiments

- **Figure S1**: Solving for the optimal diet by the digestive rate model
- **Figure S2**: Correlations between gizzard mass measurements
- **Figure S3**: Behavior exhibited during foraging trials does not correlate with field gizzard mass

700 **Table 1:** Intake rate (number of *Macoma* eaten) during ad libitum trials, and probability of eating high and low quality *Macoma* as a function of gizzard

701 treatment and replicate. Intake was modelled with Gaussian errors and probability of acceptance (accept=1, reject =0) was modelled with binomial errors.

702 Values presented are estimates (β for fixed effects, σ for random effects) and 95% credible intervals around the estimates (CI) drawn from 1000 iterations of

the model (see methods for further descriptions of the models). Adjusted repeatability (r) was calculated as the individual variance divided by the sum of

individual and residual variance.

		Log odds ratio of accepting versus rejecting		Log odds ratio of accepting
	Ad libitum intake	High quality Macoma	Low quality Macoma	Large versus Small
Fixed effects	β (95% Cl)	β (95% CI)	β (95% CI)	β (95% Cl)
Small gizzard treatment	7.28 (3.64, 11.46)	2.21 (1.40, 3.43)	-1.14 (-2.00, -0.61)	-1.41 (-2.00, -0.96)
Replicate (small gizzard treatment)	6.02 (2.14, 8.59)	1.34 (0.09, 2.97)	0.61 (0.33, 1.10)	0.46 (0.08, 0.74)
Large gizzard treatment	14.72 (10.20, 18.23)	2.08 (1.11, 3.02)	-0.72 (-1.57, -0.17)	-0.95 (-1.62, -0.56)
Replicate (large gizzard treatment)	0.63 (-2.84, 3.65)	0.24 (-0.48, 0.98)	-0.06 (-0.63, 0.45)	-0.02 (-0.57, 0.39)
Random effects	σ (95% Cl)	σ (95% CI)	σ (95% Cl)	σ (95% Cl)
ID	2.24 (0.75, 5.05)	0.93 (0.47, 1.94)	0.44 (0.22, 0.92)	0.12 (0.03, 0.19)
Residual	41.52(27.18, 64.36)	1	1	1
Repeatability	r (95% Cl)	r (95% CI)	r (95% CI)	r (95% Cl)
ID	0.05 (0.02, 0.09)	0.57 (0.36, 0.68)	0.36 (0.22, 0.50)	0.10 (0.03, 0.16)

Table 2: Gizzard plasticity (change in gizzard mass over the course of diet trials; gizzard mass at end
of diet trials – gizzard mass at start of diet trials) as a function of gizzard mass treatment ("small" or
"large") and total number of *Macoma* consumed. Gizzard plasticity was modelled with a Gaussian
error structure. Values presented are estimates (β for fixed effects, σ for random effects) and 95 %
credible intervals around the estimates (CI) drawn from 1000 iterations of the model (see methods
for further descriptions of the models). Adjusted repeatability (r) was calculated as the individual
variance divided by the sum of individual and residual variance.

	1
Fixed effects	β (95% CI)
Small gizzard treatment	-0.15 (-1.28, 0.69)
Macoma ingestions (small gizzard treatment)	0.019 (0.005, 0.037)
Large gizzard treatment	-1.42 (-2.45, -0.38)
Macoma ingestions (large gizzard treatment)	0.035 (0.014, 0.051)
Random effects	σ (95% Cl)
ID	0.80 (0.34, 1.52)
Residual	1.16 (0.67, 2.05)
Repeatability	r (95% Cl)
ID	0.43 (0.25, 0.58)



714

715 **Figure 1:** Effect of three week long gizzard mass treatment on realized gizzard mass at the start of

716 diet choice experiments. Lines connect estimated gizzard mass from the same individual red knot in

each of the two treatment categories. During the small gizzard treatment, birds received a high

718 digestive quality diet of the flesh from open mussels, and during the large gizzard treatment birds

received a low digestive quality diet of gastropod mudsnails, *Hydrobia ulvae*, which required

720 processing large shell volumes in the gizzard.



722 Figure 2: Effect of gizzard mass manipulations on the number of *Macoma* consumed during three

consecutive *ad libitum* foraging trials. Lines connect successive trials by the same individuals.



725 **Figure 3:** Probability of accepting high versus low digestive quality *Macoma* as a function of gizzard

- mass. Box plots illustrate raw data for first trial in which a bird participated for 4 or more prey
- presentations. Lines within the boxes mark the medians, boxes span the 25th to 75th interquartile
- range, and the whiskers indicate the 90th and 10th percentiles.



Figure 4: Changes in gizzard mass as a function of the total number of *Macoma* ingested during three
foraging trials per bird. Each point represents 1 individual. Filled circles denote the large gizzard
treatment and open circles denote the small gizzard treatment with opened mussels. Regression
lines are best fits to the raw data.